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method of study, explaining the reason for it, and should give such exercises in class. He may guard against mere verbal memory by asking for the translation of widely separated forms and insisting that the pupil rely on his knowledge of the laws governing the formation of Latin words.

This knowledge depends on the pupil's power of analysis, of seeing the same essential element in different complexes. Since Latin forms are made of varying stems and certain fixed systems of signs and endings, the pupil must be trained to distinguish in new words the permanent elements which fix the meaning. For instance, he must compare the elements of such forms as *monuit*, *auxit*, *complevit*, see the variable and the permanent, and then frame his law. By associating the meaning of each element and the technical term with the form and by exercising the student in the formation of corresponding forms, the proper response is established for all similar words.

A good memory depends on the physiological property of the brain which makes the brain-paths permanent and on the number and quality of the connections between the fact to be remembered and other facts. Since the second factor alone can be controlled the increase of the number of connections and their arrangement in useful systems must be the work of the teacher. This depends on reasoning, the highest and hardest intellectual act. The failure of one out of every two who begin the study of Latin to continue it in the second year is due chiefly to failure here. The teacher must, according to Thorndike, 'arouse the system of ideas relevant to the work in hand; lead the pupil to examine facts in the light of the aim of that work; focus attention on the element which is essential; insist that he test by verification'.

The formal steps in the case of Latin are those of the inductive development lesson. The usual beginner's class starts with nothing more than a knowledge of the simplest principles of English. Before proceeding to a study of a declension or conjugation the teacher must recall to his pupils the various ways of expressing the relations of a noun in English or the significance of the forms of an English verb. The aim will then be to see how Latin expresses these same ideas. The new Latin forms should reach the child through ear and eye. So much of the work of the lesson should be done when it is assigned. The paradigm itself is a generalization whose application to new words gives an opportunity for a necessary and interesting drill. When the first declension has been learned it becomes with its English connections a new apperceptive system for grasping the second.

The review lesson, when work on a set of forms has been completed, may begin with the step of comparison and abstraction and so work out the general laws of likeness and difference for the series. The

pupil must then be taught to refer a new word to its own class. Nor may the teacher forget the examination lesson in whose preparation with attention at white heat the mind will receive valuable training. In these ways the pupil can acquire what he needs in the form in which he will need it for reading and writing Latin.

In teaching syntax the needs of two classes of pupils must be considered, those who intend to go to college and therefore need thorough preparation to meet college requirements, and those who will get no more training than the secondary school gives. In order that the necessity for more detailed work and the special ability of those preparing for college may not interfere with the progress of the generally less able pupils of the other class who must reach a different ideal of training in syntax and literary appreciation, it is very desirable that the two classes be separated¹.

In the teaching of the second class syntax must be reduced to a minimum—enough to insure a thorough understanding of the text. Direct interest is easily obtained, if the pupil is made to realize that only with this key can the meaning be unlocked. Before the translation of connected Latin is begun, there must be a working knowledge of the simplest constructions, a knowledge which can be given most easily through the steps of the inductive development lesson. In the beginning state plainly to the pupil the aim in mind, for instance, to show how Latin expresses cause by means of a noun. Let the class give examples of English sentences which express cause in this way. The teacher should then put upon the board a number of Latin sentences in which the expression of cause is, according to Thorndike again, "as obtrusive as possible, as little encumbered by irrelevant detail as possible and in which the surroundings vary". By skillful questions direct the attention of the pupils to the essential elements and help them to compare the sentences and abstract the significant details. If there is a difference in idiom show by a development lesson, if possible, or by statement, if the matter is beyond the pupil's powers, the logic of the Roman point of view. Let the pupils frame a generalization in their own words and then let them see in the grammar the best way of stating their conclusions.

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(To be concluded)

REVIEW

An Introduction to Vulgar Latin. By C. H. Grandgent, Professor of Romance Languages in Harvard University. Boston: D. C. Heath and Co. (1907). Pp. xvii + 219.

Those who are already familiar with the author's excellent Outline of the Phonology and Morphology

¹ When a much needed reform in college entrance requirements has come to pass, this division will cease to be necessary.

of Old Provençal will welcome this addition to our meager practical outfit for the systematic study of the Latin folk-speech. Intended primarily for the students of Romance philology, it is the author's hope that the present manual may be of interest to classical scholars as well. The work constitutes, indeed, an admirable middle ground in its presentation of a subject of scarcely less importance to the Latinist than to (what the Germans call) the Romanist.

Into the first five pages we find compressed a general statement of the complicated linguistic situation, a detailed exposition of which is set forth in the remainder of the book. So brief a space naturally permits of no elaborate discussion of the subtle and fascinating interplay of influences that gradually resulted in the differentiated phases of what may be conveniently designated as folk-speech and book-speech—terms which may well come to be regarded as pointing more definitely to the nature of the problems involved than the consecrated 'classic' and 'vulgar'. How difficult it is, in a few sentences qualified only by "perhaps" or "probably", to put before the student generalizations suited to command unlimited assent may be exemplified by one or two citations: "Under the Empire the variations probably came to be no greater than those now to be found in the English of the British Empire". In such an estimate, can full account have been taken of the present universality of the printed page and the unprejudiced ubiquity of the school-mistress, not to speak of the space-annihilation of steam and electricity and the omniprevalence of the *cacoethes dictionarii*? "Literary influence is conservative and refining, while popular usage tends to quick change", a statement which is as obviously correct, in one aspect, as the converse is true, in another—viz., that archaisms of vocabulary, locution, pronunciation and syntax are a notable characteristic of unlettered speech, while innovations and conscious or unconscious affectations (such as 'would better' for 'had better' in English) are of the essence of literary influence; in other words, as our author tells us in the next sentence, "educated speech became highly artificial". "What we call Vulgar Latin is the speech of the middle classes, as it grew out of early Classic Latin". What may be called Folk-Latin was the substratum of unstudied, every-day, vernacular speech of all classes, as affected by variations from man to man, from class to class, from decade to decade.

Given a state of linguistic affairs so difficult of strict definitions and delimitations, generous allowance must be made for the embarrassment of an author in determining the most available point of attack. In discussing, for instance, the borderland between Latin and the derived tongues, should he represent, apropos of the subjunctive, that "at the end of the Vulgar Latin period it was probably used, in popular speech, very much as it is used in the Romance languages" (sec. 117), or shall he take the

other point of view, and indicate that the stage of evolution in which the subjunctive is found to approach the usage of the Romance languages may be roughly designated as marking (with other, similar features) the end of the Vulgar Latin period? Again, it is not very important whether the example *ad ecclesia majore* (with half a page more) is recorded under the rubric "the ablative is very often written for the accusative" (§ 96), or under section 94, where it is explained that after the fall of final *m* the accusative and ablative case forms were no longer discriminated; but it seems to be worth while making a distinction between the purely phonetic reduction of *ecclesiam* to *ecclesia*, and the resulting confusion of case forms which leads to *cum epistolam*, etc. (§ 95).

In one important respect the treatment in this book differs from that of our author's Old Provençal, viz., in the omission for the most part of one of the terms of the linguistic equation, Latin = Romance. Inasmuch as a considerable proportion of all the examples and illustrations cited are starred forms, in other words, forms of which the Latinist can have no knowledge excepting as they are deduced for him by the Romance specialist, and inasmuch as the Romance student in general is himself not yet a specialist, this omission of the Romance equivalents may be found by some to detract from the practical usefulness of the manual. It is at least certain that for the reader who is sufficiently familiar with the subject a large part of the significance and suggestiveness of the work comes with the constant mental evocation of the silent but vital testimony of the Romance languages, in an otherwise somewhat perfunctory application of attention to the enumeration of linguistic vulgarisms. It remains to be seen, however, whether this omission may not be made the occasion for a series of practical exercises, in connection with the use of the work as a text-book.

In point of scholarship, it is superfluous to say that the work is most painstaking and accurate. A few questions, however, may be raised. Section 5: It is perhaps misleading to characterize the Appendix Probi as "a list of bad spellings". In a few instances, to be sure, we find examples of bad spelling: "occasio non *occansio*", "arundo non *harundo*"; but in the great majority of cases (fortunately for us) the spelling of the Appendix gives an excellent reproduction of folk-speech peculiarities the significance of which does not turn upon the spelling: cf. e. g. "pecten non pectinis", "catulus non catellus", "auris non oricla", "rabidus non rabiosus". Section 8: "Very many Classic words are used in Vulgar Latin in a different sense; *comparare* equals 'buy'". Bréal (Dict. Ety., s. v. *paro*) has "*comparo*, as acheter (ne pas confondre avec *comparo* venant de *par*)". Section 11: "Very many adverbs and conjunctions disappeared", among them, says our author, *vel*; but Old Fr. and Old Prov. have *veaus*, *siviaus*.

Section 17: "**gentis*, adj. (Fr. Pr. *gent*, It. *gente*)¹, apparently a cross between *genitus* and *gentilis*"; but the fact that Prov. always has fem. *genta* makes it reasonably certain that the word is Lat. *genitus* pure and simple. Section 134: As exceptions to the rule that the penult vowel before mute and liquid normally has the stress in Vulgar Latin are mentioned *pálpebras* > O. Fr. *palpres*, **púlitra* > O. Fr. *poltre*, "and perhaps some others". The present writer is able to add only *ferctrum* > O. Fr. *fiertre*, Ital. *feretro*. Section 138: "Aside from these [above-mentioned] cases, hiatus seems to have had no effect on the accent in Latin. It is possible, however, that *duós*, *súos*, *túos* were sometimes pronounced *duós*, *suós*, *tuós*". The fact which is here tentatively mentioned without explanation or cross-reference, is correctly, if too briefly, set forth in section 158: "Words sometimes stressed and sometimes unstressed tended to develop double forms: *illás* > *illas* and **las*, *sua* > *súa* and *sa*". It is such vital processes as this, teeming with the possibilities of momentary deviation from norm, that should claim the fullest elucidation, even in a succinct manual. An exposition of this phenomenon, in particular, would serve to illuminate the differentiation of the so-called conjunctive and disjunctive personal pronouns of the practical grammars and of the adjectival and pronominal forms of the determinatives (including the definite article). Section 170: Apropos of *pejor*, and the discussions of Terentianus Maurus and Priscian, it would have been appropriate to start with **per-ior* > *pejor*. Section 358: "An ablative in *-abus* is occasionally found". It may be entertaining *virginibus puerisque*—as well as eminently proper—to find here, duly chronicled as rarities, and with all the critical apparatus of reference to the *Archiv*, to Person and to Bonnet, our familiar friends of the nursery and of Lesson I of all the Latin primers, *deabus* and *filiabus*.

But such desultory comment must not even seem to be permitted to obscure the wealth of systematically accumulated detail, ranging progressively through the chapters on vocabulary, syntax, phonology and morphology. In addition to a full general bibliography, the successive paragraphs are supplied, wherever requisite, with more specific references; and there is an adequate index. The book is presented in attractive garb, and typographical errors are commendably few. In Section 178 ω is twice misprinted *ce*; in Section 192, last line, a rough breathing is twice printed under δ , in place of iota subscript.

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SUMMARIES

COMMUNITY OF INTERESTS AND TRUSTS IN ROME

R. Laurient-Vibert has in the *Mélanges d'Archéologie et d'Histoire* of May-July, 1908, a very in-

¹This is one of the few paragraphs in which Romance equivalents are given.

teresting article on the *publicani* of Asia in 51 B. C.

In general, of course, every teacher of Cicero is familiar with the farming of the Roman revenues in Asia and elsewhere by the *Societates publicanorum*. It appears, however, that in the year mentioned, the governorship of Cicero in Cilicia, we find the management of the revenues of all Asia Minor in the hands of a syndicate, headed by, and named after the *Societas Bithyniae*, probably because the latter had been the moving spirit in the consolidation. Ordinarily the different societies dealt with the different departments of the revenues—*decuma*, *scriptura*, *portoria*—had their special *magistri*, or managing directors, and could place themselves under the patronage of different influential officials. Legally, the censors of each lustrum made new contracts, and hence the life of a farming society would have been limited to the space of one lustrum, i. e. five years. Apparently, however, these societies occasionally were above the law. Thus we find that during the administration of Cicero, the corporation, thanks to the wise dealings of the proconsul, was able to collect not only the taxes due during its own lustrum, but also those owing from the preceding one. It seems thus that the one company had held the contract since 61 B. C. Now we know from the earlier correspondence of Cicero that the contractors of 61 had demanded the repeal of their contract with the Roman state, because, as they claimed, their bid had been ruinously high. This demand had been energetically fought by Cato, who had succeeded in blocking all legislative progress, and it had been only during the consulate of Caesar, 59, that the contractors had gained their point, and had had their contract reduced by 33%. The fact that there were at that time no other bidders willing to compete shows the existence of a tax trust, which had the state at its mercy. Caesar, indeed, sought to safeguard the republic against further imposition by stipulating that thereafter the societies should never bid below the price of 59. A further examination of the details by M. Laurient seems to reveal the existence of a very clever plot on the part of the different *societates*. One of them, by outbidding all the others in 61, secured the contract at what appeared an exceedingly advantageous offer for the state. It then bought up all its competitors, and by refusing to carry out the contract compelled the state not only to grant very much reduced terms, but also to extend the franchise for more than the legal period. It is unnecessary to point to the very up-to-date character of the transaction. E. R.

CLASSICAL STUDIES AS A PREPARATION FOR LAW

IV. Discussion of the first three Papers.

(1) By Hon. Harlow P. Davock, of the Detroit Bar.

The question when and how far Latin and Greek should be studied may be left for determination to